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THE FARMER.

SATURDAY, AUGUST 24, 1833.

FRUITS--COMPARISON OF SORTS.

We have presented to our readers lists of the Apples, Pears and Cherries,* embraced in the first class, or fruits of superior quality, cultivated in the London Horticultural Society's Garden, which contains, without doubt, the greatest collection, and the best varieties, of cultivated hardy fruits ever concentrated at any one point, and affords the best possible means of estimating their comparative merits. As we think this Catalogue affords the best guide in the selection of choice fruits, we propose to continue the abstract, so far as it may promise to profit our readers; repeating, however, our remark, that on account of difference in climate, the same varieties will not invariably be found entitled to a preference here, which are found to be superior in England.

The *Apricots*, of which forty varieties are named, are not classed as to quality. The Apricot, at best, is a very precarious bearer with us; yet as most persons are desirous of possessing it, we give the names of those varieties which are stated to be very good. They are the

Black,	Moorpark,
Breda,	Musch-Musch,
Brussels,	Orange and
Hemskirke,	Roman,

all of which may be found in the American nurseries.

Berberries.—Six varieties are named, said to be all extremely similar in quality.

Chesnuts.—Twenty-seven kinds are named, including the American common and Chinquapin, without any distinctive preference.

Currants.—Nineteen varieties are enumerated. Those said to be most worthy of cultivation are,

Black Naples,	The Common White &
Red Dutch,	White Dutch.
Knight's Sweet Red,	

Knight's Sweet Red is of recent origin, and we do not know that it has yet been introduced into our country. The Black Currants are much esteemed in Britain, but they have not been highly appreciated with us. The Black Naples has been but recently noted in our catalogues. It is principally employed for jam, jelly and wine.

Figs.—Eighty-nine kinds, named as being in the garden, of which the following are comprised in the first class:

Black Provence,	Black,
Blanche,	Brown,
Brunswick,	Early,
Blue Burgundy,	White & yellow Ischia,
Early Forcing,	Marseilles,
Genoa,	Pregussata and
Howick,	Brown Turkey.

The fig may be raised with us in Green Houses, or in tubs, placed in the open ground in summer, and taken under cover in winter. We saw some ripe ones at a late horticultural show in Albany, grown in tubs, and fruited in the open ground.

Gooseberries.—Three hundred and sixty kinds are named; of these sixty-seven are ranked in the first class, and of which latter, as they will occupy but a few lines, and gratify amateurs in this fruit, we subjoin the names, color and size.

y. yellow—*r.* red—*w.* white—*g.* green;—*s.* small—*m.* middle sized—*l.* large.

Aston, *y. s.*	Miss Bald, *r. m.*
Ball, *y. m.*	Perfection, *g. l.*
Bright Venus, *w. m.*	Princess Royal, *g. w. l.*
Champagne, *r. s.*	Queen Charlotte, *g.w.m.*
Champagne, *w. s.*	Raspberry, *d. r. s.*
Champagne, *y. s.*	Red, Beaumont's *d.r. m.*
Cheshire Lass, *w. l.*	Red Mogul, *r. s.*
Chrystal, *w. s.*	Red Oval, *r. l.*
Crown Bob, *r. l.*	Red Rose, *r. l.*
Damson, *w. s.*	Red Turkey, *r. s.*
Early gr. hairy, *g. s.*	Riffleman, *r. l.*
Early white *w. m.*	Rough Red, *r. s.*
Farmer's Glory, *r. l.*	Royal Oak, *r. m.*
Fig, *w. s.*	Sabin's Green, *g. s.*
Glenton, *g. m.*	Scented Lemon, *r. l.*
Globe, *r. s.*	Scotch best Jam, *d. r. s.*
Glory of Ratcliff, *g. m.*	Sheba Queen, *w. l.*
Golden, *y. m.*	Small Red, *r. s.*
Green Gage, *g. s.*	Smiling Beauty, *r. l.*
Green Seedling, *g. s.*	Smooth Green, *g. l.*
Heart of Oak, *g. l.*	Smooth Yellow, *y. s.*
Hebburn, prolific, *g. m.*	Sulphur, *y. s.*
Hedgehog, *w. m.*	Tantararara, *r. m.*
Honey, *w. m.*	Walnut, *d. g. m.*
Jolly Angler, *g. l.*	Warrington, *r. l.*
Jolly Tar, *g. l.*	Wellington's Glory, *w.l.*
Keen's Seedling, *r. m.*	White Bear, *w. l.*
Large early white, *g. w. l.*	White Eagle, *w. l.*
Late green, *g. s.*	White Lion, *w. l.*
Laurel, *p. g. l.*	Whitesmith, *w. l.*
Lord Crew, *g. l.*	Yaxley Hero, *r. l.*
Lord of the Manor, *r. l.*	Yellowsmith, *y. s.*
Maid of the mill, *w.m.*	

In looking over the gooseberry list, we remark, that quality is not determined by size, but rather the reverse—the first size being generally embraced in the 2d and 3d classes; an evidence of popular error, which is too apt to estimate merit in proportion to size, not only in fruits, but in vegetables, and even in animals. This error is particularly common in judging of apples—when in fact those of the finest flavor, and most concentrated aromatic juice, are either of medium or diminutive size. It is uncommon to find a large apple that will make *good* cider, and almost as strange to find a large one of great excellence for the table.

The climate of Britain is peculiarly adapted to the gooseberry culture; and the lower classes find a profitable recreation in the competitions which exist for producing new and large varieties. We have seen an account of the gooseberry shows, for one year, in England, which made a respectable sized volume of fine print. The cottagers and artisans frequently carry off the premiums from professional gardeners. Great pains are taken in the culture of this fruit, in manuring, pruning, training and thinning the berries,—precautions but seldom or partially adopted with us, either from the force of habit, or because the crop does not promise a return for the labor. It is a precarious crop, at best, with us, on account of the mildew; yet almost every horticulturist believes he can succeed better than his neighbor has, until he has taken lessons in the school of experience. We have this year grown a handsome clean crop on bushes which for six years before, under special management, had produced none but mildewed berries. Whether this has been owing to the season, or to our neglect of them, we are unable to say—but they were neither manured nor pruned during the season.

Grapes.—The Catalogue gives us the names of one hundred and eighty-two kinds, of which thirty-three are placed in the first class. The latter are all foreign varieties, our Isabella, Bland's Virginia, Elsingburgh, &c., being thrown into the third or worthless class. It is to be borne in mind, that in Britain, the grape is cultivated almost exclusively in the hot house, vinery, or upon a wall. These conveniencies are yet very rare with us. Vinery is another name for grape house, or a building covered principally with glass, and supplied with artificial heat. Although our climate is warmer than that of Great Britain, there is no probability that grapes which are too tender for the wall in the latter country can succeed in the open ground here, or even in a grape house unaided by artificial heat. We confine our list, therefore, to those of the first quality which are recommended for the wall in Britain, and to the color and flavor of the berries.

Boudales (of the upper Pyrennees)	*red. muscat.*
Burgundy, Miller's	*black. sweet.**
Chasselas, Musque	*white. muscat.*
Chasselas, Precoce,	*white. sweet.*
Frontignan, Red	*red. muscat.*
Frontignan, Black	*black. muscat.*
Frontignan, White	*white. muscat.*
Mignonne, White Cluster	*white. sweet.*
Pitmaston, White Cluster	*white. sweet.*
Sweetwater, Grove End	*white. sweet.*
Sweetwater, White	*white. sweet.*
Verdelho,	*yellowish. green. sweet.*
White Cluster,	*white. sweet.*

It has become a matter of belief with many, and we confess ourselves embraced in the number, that the foreign varieties of the grape cannot be successfully cultivated in the open ground in this country, except perhaps in particular localities. We have given them a trial in our grounds for eight or ten years, and have dug up fifty or sixty plants, and filled their places with the Isabella and Catawba. We have seen young vines of the Chasselas, Muscadine, Miller's Burgundy, Sweetwater and Black Hamburgh, producing partial, and even fair crops, in the open grounds;—and we have seen all hopes of ulterior success in the same vines subsequently blasted by blight and mildew. We have however seen these varieties thriving exceedingly well, and producing abundance of handsome fruit, in grape houses, protected by glass, but without the aid of artificial heat; and we are induced to believe that such structures offer the cheapest mode of successfully cultivating foreign varieties among us. A house for this purpose, 50 by 12 feet, and twelve feet high in the rear, will cost from one hundred to one hundred and thirty dollars.

Medlars.—Of the five varieties given, the Dutch and Nottingham are alone deemed worthy of culture.

* In answer to the inquiry of our respected correspondent, D. T. we can only say that the *quality* of Holman's Duke is not stated in the Catalogue, it probably not having fruited in the garden. It is however stated "closely to resemble the May-duke."

Nuts.—Thirty-one kinds are named, which are here known under the general denomination of Filberts. The following have the preference:—

Bond Nut,	Red & white Filbert,
Cosford,	And Spanish or
Frizzled,	Cob nut.

These nuts are extensively cultivated, as articles of commerce, in some parts of England, and are found in our fruit shops. They are but little known in our grounds, but where they have been introduced we believe they have succeeded well.

Nectarines.—Sixty-five kinds are given, twenty of which are embraced in the first class, viz:—

[The figures denoting the size, and the other column the time of ripening.]

Balgone,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Brinion,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Du Tellier's,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Downton,	1	*e* Aug.
Elruge,	2	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Hay's Seedling,	2	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Imperatrice,	1	*b* Sept.
Murrey,	2	*e* Aug.
Newington,	1	*b* Sept.
White, New	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Newington, Early	1	*e* Aug.
Newington, Tawny	1	*b m* Sept.
Pitmaston, Orange	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Roman,	1	*b m* Sept.
Tawny, (Hunt's)	2	*m e* Aug.
Temple's,	2	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Vermash,	2	*e* Aug.
Violette, Grosse	1	*b* Sept.
Violette, Hative	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
White, Old	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.

The Nectarine has not, to our knowledge, succeeded even tolerably in any part of our state. The flower buds seem more sensitive to cold, and the young fruit more inviting to insects, than those of the peach; and if the fruit attains a growth, it generally rots upon the tree ere it comes to maturity.

The *Peach* list is swelled to about two hundred varieties. The following are those designated as first quality:

Acton Seedling,	2	*e* Aug.
Admirable, late, *Royal*, &c.,	1	*e* Aug.
Ansley's,	1	*m* Sept.
Barrington,	1	*m* Sept.
Bellegarde, *Galande*, &c.,	1	*b m* Sept.
Braddick's Red,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Cambray,	1	*e* Aug.
Catharine,	1	*e* Sept. *b* Oct
Catharine, William's	1	*e* Sept. *b* Oct.
Chancellor,	1	*m* Sept.
Downton, Early	2	*e* Aug.
Dunnington Beauty,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Ford's Seedling,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Galande, Steward's Late	1	*m* Sept.
George the Fourth,	2	*b* Sept.
Heath, *Red Heath*, &c.,	1	Oct.
Hemskirke,	2	*e* Aug.
Hoffman's White,	2	*b m* Sept.
Knapp Castle Seedling,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Madeleine de Bollwiller,	2	*b m* Sept.
Madeleine de Courson,	2	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Malta,	2	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Mignonne, Grosse, *Kensington, and 36 other synonyms*,	1	*m* Aug. *b*. Sept.
Mignonne, Lord F.'s	1	*b m* Sept.
Mignonne, Petite	3	*b m* Aug.
Morrisania, *Pound*,	1	*m e* Sept.
Mountaineer,	1	*b* Sept.
Newington, Old	1	*b* Sept.
Nivette,	1	*m* Sept.
Noblesse, *Mellish's Favorite*, &c.	1	*e* Aug. *b*. Sept.
Pourpree Hative,	2	*e* Aug.
President,	1	*m e* Sept.
Royal Charlotte,	1	*b* Sept.
Royal George,	1	*e* Aug. *b*. Sept.
Royal George Mignonne,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Spring Grove,	2	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Spring Grove Persian,	2	*b* Sept.
Sulhampstead,	1	*e* Aug. *b* Sept.
Twyford,	1	*b* Sept.
William's Early Purple,	1	*e* Aug.
Knights' Early,	2	*m* Aug.
Imperatrice,	1	*b* Sept.

The Peach, Nectarine, and Apricot, are only cultivated, in Britain, on walls, or in forcing houses. The time of ripening on walls is probably indicated above, and will correspond pretty well with the times that these fruits ripen here in the open ground. A considerable portion of the peaches in this list, are in the American collections. Our Nutmegs and Lemoncling, are inserted in the 2d class; and our white and red Rare-ripes are not classed, having probably not fruited in the garden.

Plums.—274 varieties. The following comprise the first class:

Color.—P. purple, Y. yellow, G. green, R. red, W. white, or whitish.
Size.—1. large, 2. middle-sized, 3. small.
Use.—T. table, K. kitchen, P. preserving.
Season.—B. beginning, M. middle, E. end of the months named.

Name.	Color.	Size.	Use.	Ripe.
D'Agen, *a*	*p.*	2	T P	*e* Sept.
Coe's Fine Late Red, *b*	*p.*	2	T	Oct.
Coe's Golden Drop, (7 syn.) *c*	*y.*	1	T P	*e* Sept.
Damson, Shropshire, *d*	*p.*	3	K P	*m* Sept.
Drap d'Or, (*Mirabelle double.*) *e*	*y.*	3	T	*m* Aug.
Green Gage, (*Reine Claude, &c.*) *f*	*y. g.*	2	T P	"
Guimaraen, *g*	*y.*	2	P	*b* Sept.
Imperatrice, Downton,	*y.*	2	T P	Oct.
Imperatrice, Blue, *h*	*p.*	1	T P	Oct.
Imperial Diadem, *Mimms. i*	*p.*	1	K T	*b* Sept.
Isabella,	*r.*	2	K T	*e* Aug.
Kirke's, *j*	*p.*	2	T	*b m* Sept.
Mirabelle, *k*	*y.*	3	P T	*m* Aug.
Quetsche de Breme, (*German Prune,*) *l*	*p.*	2	P	Sept.
Reine Claude Violette, *Purple Gage, &c. m*	*p.*	2	P	Sept.
Royale de Tours, *n*	*p.*	1	T K	*m* Aug.
Saint Catharine, *o*	*y.*	2	T P	*m* Sept.
Virgin,	*p.*	2	T	*b* Sept.
Nectarine, *Caledonian, Peach, &c. p*	*p.*	1	T P	*b* Aug.
Perdrigon, Blue, *Perdrigon Violette, &c. q*	*p.*	2	T P	*e* Aug.
Perdrigon, White, *Brignole, &c. q*	*y.*	2	P	*e* Aug.
Washington, *Bolmar's, r*	*y.*	1	T	Sept.
Wine Sour, *Rotherham, s*	*p.*	3	P	*m* Sept.

a Good bearer. *b* Valuable for its lateness. *c* One of the most valuable. *d* Good for preserves. *e* Excellent. *f* One of the very best. *g* Resembles red Magnum Bonum. *h* Good bearer. *i* Large and handsome. *j* Excellent. *k* Good for preserving. *l* Good variety. *m* Excellent sort. *n* Equal to Orleans. *o* Good bearer—excellent for preserving. *p* Good bearer. *q* Good prunes. *r* Excellent quality. *s* Excellent for preserving.

Of this fruit there are several varieties believed to be indigenous, particularly about Albany, which rank in the first class, but which, being unable to describe, we omit the notice of.—We see them in the Hort. Catalogue, but presume they have not fruited there.

Quinces.—The common apple and pear shaped varieties, are considered nearly similar; the Portugal distinct from the preceding, and very good; the Orange and large fruited, as mere subvarieties. The Chinese and Japan are omitted as unfit for a fruit catalogue.

Of 21 *Raspberries*, the Yellow and Red Antwerp, the Barnet, Brownley Hill and Cornish, are only considered of the first quality. All but the two last, are in our nurseries.

Of *Strawberries*, 112 varieties have been introduced. The following are put down as of the first quality:

Scarlet, &c.—American scarlet, black Roseberry, Charlotte, Coul late scarlet, Garnstone scarlet, Grove end scarlet, Melon, Old scarlet, Roseberry

Black—Downton, Elton seedling, Knight's scarlet flushed, Pitmaston black, Old Black, Sweet Cone, Keen's seedling, Old Pine.

Chili—All of second or third grade.
Hautboys—Black, Large Flat, Prolific, Round-fruited Muscatel.
Green—All of second or third grade.
Alpine, with runners—American, De Montreville, white and red fruited, Red Alpine, red Wood, White Alpine and white Wood.
Alpine, without runners—Belonging to the second class. B.

THE SEASON.

Eary in June, we hazarded a conjecture as to the cause of the then cool weather, and ventured a prediction, that it would continue cool for some time, in which we think we have been amply borne out by the result. The summer, so far has been a very cool one. Corn, and particularly vines, which are very sensitive to cold, and require the greatest summer heat to bring them to perfection, are very backward. Yet the advantages of this low temperature, will probably more than counter-balance the disadvantages. In the first place, the cold seems to have been destructive to many of the insects which prey upon our young fruit. The apple, pear, plum, &c. are very abundant, and they never looked fairer and finer than at this time. In the second place, the cool weather, accompanied as it has been by frequent showers, has been highly propitious to the wheat and oat crops, which are uncommonly fine, even on the lighter soils illy adapted to their culture. Wheat is uncommonly fine, and oats, we think, never promised better. Very warm weather ripens these grains prematurely, and if accompanied by much wet, causes rust to the wheat crop. Potatoes also promise abundantly.

It is stated from Quebec, that from the last of May to the 12th July, icebergs of extraordinary size were encountered on the banks of Newfoundland, under a temperature of 35 to 40°.—One of the bergs was aground in 65 fathoms water, and rose from 80 to 110 feet above the surface. Within a circuit of 50 to 100 miles of this 8 or 10 bergs could always be seen from deck when the weather was clear. Those ices must have absorbed an incredible quantity of caloric in the process of melting. B.

COLD CUSTARD.

We have been favored with directions for preparing "cold custard" or "junket:" a dish oftentimes very grateful to the sick, and always, an agreeable accompaniment of the dessert to those who are in health. It has not yet found its way into our Books on Cookery.

Take a fresh calf's rennet,* wash it well, and strip off the inside skin. Put this into a decanter, and pour on a pint of either port or currant wine. In a day or two, it will be fit for use. To one pint of milk, lukewarm, sweetened, and flavored with rose-water, nutmeg, or essence of lemon, &c. add a teaspoonful of the wine, stirring it *slightly*. Then pour it into cups or glasses without delay—it will *come* in a few minutes.

* Our authoress denies the correctness of Webster's definition. We do not interfere.

LARGE PLUMS.

We received on Tuesday from our friend Sanford Hunt, P. M. at Hunt's Hollow, Allegany county, six Plums, equal in size to any we have ever seen. One of them measured 7½ inches in circumference; and the six weigh seventeen ounces. They were of the variety known as the *White Magnum Bonum*, or Egg Plum.

The notices which follow are from the pen of DAVID THOMAS of Greatfield, to whom we take this occasion to tender our grateful acknowledgments for the aid he has rendered us in conducting the Genesee Farmer, and to say, which we may do without disparagement to our numerous friends and correspondents, that to him the readers of this paper are indebted for a large portion of the interesting and useful original articles which have enriched the pages of the Farmer, as almost every number has been favored with more or less of the productions of his pen.

VORACIOUS BIRDS.

Many of our apricots and early pears have been destroyed by the red tanager, the Baltimore oriole, and the cedar bird. Of the latter we expected nothing better; but the tanager and oriole are new enemies, and are even worse than their associate. Very few pears would be suffered to ripen if we had not taken measures to lessen their flocks. Hereafter we shall consider all these entitled to the same treatment.

NEW AND VALUALE PLUM.

I am indebted to my friend *Jacob Griffen* of Venice, for a plum which on account of its time of ripening is a valuable acquisition. It comes in immediately after the *Primordian* or *Jaune hative*, and supplies a chasm *in the circle* which I had long sought to fill. In shape, color (and flavor?) it is a green gage—greatest diameter (across) an inch and a quarter, but would be larger if properly thinned on the tree. Its flavor is very fine.

We have examined the various descriptions of plums, and find none that agrees with it,—the *drop d'or* perhaps approaching the nearest. We know nothing of its origin: it is a grafted tree, but from whence, is unknown.

EARLY APPLES.

I have often regretted that so many of our independent farmers should be so badly provided with early summer apples. Every one who owns a lot of land, ought to have them fit for cooking by the middle of the seventh month (July,) and ripe and mellow by the 20th. *Prince's Yellow Harvest* (sometimes, though improperly, called the *Juneating*,) would supply them with these advantages.

There is another apple which I have not seen noticed in the books, excepting *Prince's* SHORT TREATISE, but which I can recommend as a remarkably fine summer fruit: It is the *Sine qua non*. It comes into use immediately *after* the Yellow Harvest. The following account is copied from the "Short Treatise:"

"*Sine qua non.* This title I gave myself to the most pleasant flavored apple I have ever seen perhaps, not excepting the "Yellow Harvest;" from the belief that those who become familiar with it, will deem it an *indispensable* appendage to their orchards. It is nearly green when full ripe. For the table or for cooking, I consider it not surpassed by any of its season. *The original tree stands in a field about two miles from my residence,* and is a *wilding.*"

With *Buffington's Early*, which ripens at the same time, I have been acquainted more than forty years, and we think, in flavor it has no superior. It is a smaller apple than the *Sine qua non*, flat, sometimes of a beautiful white, but more commonly has a blush on one side. It is not so productive as many other kinds, and this may be the cause of its not being more generally cultivated. I can trace it no farther than to Chester county in Pennsylvania.

ON THE EXTIRPATION OF WEEDS. No. 2.

In this neighborhood there is no weed which requires more immediate attention than the St. John's wort (*Hypericum perforatum*,) remarkable for its bright yellow flowers. From the disregard that has been shown to its progress, there is a prospect of its soon occupying most of the fields, pastures, meadows, and way sides, in this quarter; and farmers cannot be too soon aroused to a sense of their danger. It is a most pernicious weed. Mixed with grass seeds, it may spread rapidly over a farm; but in ordinary cases, its advances are gradual, allowing the farmer who has any choice between wholesome grass and noxious weeds, an opportunity to root it out with very little trouble or expense. It will require both however, with much perseverance, when it has once obtained full possession of a field.

The great increase of weeds amongst us within the last twenty years, indicates the propriety of carefully examining all seeds before sowing, which are not *known* to be clean; and in addition to this caution, every farmer who wishes to keep his lands free from St. John's wort, ought to use neither hay nor grass seed which has grown on a farm infested by this weed.

To show the opinions entertained of it, by those who have had long experience of its deleterious qualities, I give the following extracts from writers of the first reputation:

H. perforatum. "Too abundantly naturalized in dry pastures, and considered *very injurious to horses.*" Professor *Nuttall:* Genera of North American Plants.

"This plant has become *a most pestiferous weed*, every where throughout the Union, [below the mountains.] It is accused of *injuring horses.* Introduced originally from Europe. In fields, and by road and fence sides, every where *unfortunately* abundant." Professor *Barton:* Compendium Floræ Philadelphicæ.

"This is a foreigner, and *a pernicious weed in our pastures:* often *producing troublesome scabby sores upon horses and horned cattle*, when it comes in contact with them—especially those which are *white*, or have white feet and noses.—It would seem that the *dew* which collects on the plant, becomes active in this way. I have seen the backs of white cows covered with sores, wherever the bushy ends of their tails had been applied, after dragging through the St. John's wort." Dr. *Darlington:* Florula Cestrica. D. T.

Greatfield, 8 mo. 17, 1833.

HYDROPHOBIA.

A son of Mr. Daniel J. Van Valen, aged about 13 years, died in this village on Sunday last, of this dreadful disease. He had been bitten by a mad dog some six or eight weeks previous.

On Tuesday evening, the younger Mr. O'Keal veterinary surgeon, who kept an office in this village, died as was supposed of the same disease, taken about two weeks previous from a bruise received while administering a dose of medicine to a sick horse. We shall endeavor to pocure a correct history of this case for our next paper.

THRASHING MACHINES.

In a late number of the Farmer, I observed an article approving of Staffard & Staunton's thrashing machine, and I can cheerfully join in the commendation there given. I have used one of those machines, built at Syracuse, for three years, and find it to answer every reasonable expectation which could be entertained of such a machine; and since their recent improvements, consider it superior to any with which I am acquainted. Its advantages consist in requiring less horse power to produce a given effect than any other machine—it is strong, safe, and durable in its construction—and its performance is rapid and thorough. Decidedly friendly however as I am to thrashing machines, believing that in the present situation of our markets, not to get out our wheat in the fall is to suffer a great loss, and our best wheat, the white flint, can be thrashed advantageously in no other way,—still I would not advise their introduction generally on small farms. Unless a farmer has thrashing to do, to the amount of twelve or fifteen hundred bushels of grain a year, he had better not buy—for since the introduction of portable machines, a small farmer can have one bro't to his barn, and his grain thrashed out at a better rate than to purchase for himself, and yet give a handsome profit to the operator.—I know a man who realized more than four hundred dollars in about three months last fall, with an ambulatory machine, thrashing for one bushel in ten, thus benefiting himself as well as others. One thing however should always be remembered—the man who intends to keep his stock on straw, should eschew thrashing machines, as he may depend, that upon straw thus thrashed cattle will starve much more quickly, than upon that thrashed with the flail or by horses. W. G.

Otisco, August, 1833.

PICKLES.

Happening in at the house of a gentleman, a few months since, he remarked that he had adopted a new method of preserving cucumbers, or making pickles, and as proof of its excellence, produced some prepared according to his system. As it was new to me, it may possibly be so to some of the readers of the Farmer. Take of common sour cider, such as cider drinkers usually denominate hard, a quantity sufficient to cover the cucumbers intended to pickle, and put it into a vessel proper for the purpose. Gather your cucumbers when of the right size, without scratching or bruising them—rub or wash them clean, and put them in the cider—stir them occasionally, and if a scum rises let it be taken off, and they will gradually become pickles of the first quality, green, hard, and of fine appearance. Peppers, and other condiments, may be added as required. I cannot vouch for the invariable success of this mode, but in the hands of my friend I know it operated admirably, and the expense and trouble are so small, compared with some other methods, that it is well worthy a trial. W. G.

Otisco, 1833.

DAHLIAS.

Mr. Gordon presented us on the 20th, with a boquet of this fine flower, comprising a number of varieties, among which were Greenwood's Matchless, Douglas' Augusta, Sol, Pulla, Colvill's Perfecta, Dentata, Lord Hill, Crimson Multiflora, Coccinea Superba, Queen Adelaide, &c

Mr. Tucker—I was much pleased with the letter of Joseph Cooper, furnished you by your Pennsylvania correspondent, published in the last number of the Farmer. In imitation of his example, I send for insertion in the Farmer, if you think proper, two extracts from papers of 1805 and 6. — C.

From the Albany Gazette.

CULTURE OF WHEAT.

Messrs. Websters—On an acre and three quarters of land, I have raised *sixty-two bushels and a half of WHEAT*—the which the bearer now carries to market. The land had been pastured for several years—I put no manure of any kind on it—ploughed and harrowed it at different times till it was mellow and fine—sowed it about the middle of September, and have reaped it, as above stated, nearly 36 bushels an acre.

There were two things, which I presume caused this more than common crop, (more than common in this part of the state,)—my people not judging rightly of the quantity of land, or having a heavy hand, as we say, sowed 2½ bushels to the acre—and after it was sowed, I took pains in cutting and *clearing out* ditches, or drains, through the piece, leaving the lands about 12 feet wide. The thick sowing and draining gave the superiority to my crop, above those of my neighbors. Some of the wheat froze out, but enough remained—had the water not been carried off, the greater part (for it was low land) would have been frozen out.

If you choose to publish, and any person chooses to try what can be gained by getting their land in good order—sowing thick, and draining where necessary—I wish you and they may reap abundantly. A Farmer.

Duanesburgh, Aug. 30, 1805.

From the Medical and Agricultural Register.

CURING BUTTER.

The following mode of curing butter I believe was practiced first in the parish of Udney, in Great Britain. An account of it has some time since been published in this country; it is, however, yet far from being generally known, and many to whom it is known have not paid it that attention which the importance of the thing requires; I have therefore a wish it may appear in the Register.

Take two parts of the best common salt, one part of sugar, and one part of saltpeter, beat them up together, and blend the whole completely; take one ounce of this composition for every sixteen ounces of butter, work it well into mass, and close it up for use.

The above by some is used in this proportion—*ten ounces* of salt to *four ounces* of clean sugar.

The following is the commendation given of this mode of practice in the *Pennsylvania Farmer*:—

"The butter cured of this mixture appears of a rich marrow consistence, and fine color, and never acquires hardness nor tastes salt; *it eats as sweet after being kept three years as at first.* It must be noted, that butter thus cured requires to stand three weeks or a month before it is fit to be used; if it be sooner opened, the salts are not perfectly blended with it, and sometimes the coolness of the niter will then be perceived, which totally disappears afterwards."

This mixture will not cost more than about one cent per ounce, which is sufficient for curing *one pound of butter.* Country farmers, is not this worthy your attention? As much so as *sweet butter* is better and bears a higher price than that which is *strong* and *frowy.* Besides, it affords to the dairy-woman *a settled rule*, in an operation which, in the way it is usually practiced, is done *without rule or uniformity.* I cannot but think, were people to adopt the mode here recommended, they would soon be convinced of the importance of it. Every one knows the superiority of meat preserved by a proportion of saltpeter and sugar with common salt, and it cannot but be expected that the same should be the case in respect to butter. A Lover of Good Butter.

Suffolk County, May, 1806.

From the Bucks County Intelligencer of 1831.

THE PRACTICAL FARMER--No. 3.

Before concluding my observations on Orchard Grass, it may be interesting to the readers of the Intelligencer, to have presented for their perusal an estimate of the profits of this grass, as well as a comparison of the same with those of a crop of wheat raised on the same farm, on land of the same quality.

The estimates are made for the present season, and it is believed that, as respects the quality of grain, hay and seed, they are very nearly exact.

On 14 acres of Orchard Grass—seed 100 bushels, at $1,25 per bush.		$125,00
Fourteen tons of hay, at $10 per ton,		140,00
Amount,		$265,00
Expense of cutting and shocking seed,	$6,00	
Do. of thrashing and preparing for market,	8,00	
Do. of cutting stubble and 2d crop, also hauling,	24,00	$38,00
Clear profit,		$227,00

The price current of good Orchard Grass seed the present season, is $1,25 per bushel, and the wages allowed for gathering the seed and hay, are as near what was actually paid as could be recollected.

On 14 acres of wheat the present season, the yield by computation was 20 bushels per acre, the amount of which at $1,10 per bush. is $308,00

Expense of ploughing first time, one hand and team 7 days,	$14,00	
Do. 2d ploughing,	14,00	
Do. 1 team 2 hands for 10 days hauling manure,	25,00	
Do. 150 loads of manure at $1 per load,	150,00	
Do. harvesting, 4 hands four days,	16,00	
Do. thrashing 40 days for one hand, at 40 cents per day,	16,00	235,00
Net profit,		$73,00

In the above exposition, various minutiæ are omitted, which by comparison will generally be found in favor of the crop of wheat. I barely mention the *seed.* This, as the *grass* continues to flourish and improve for several years from one sowing, must be much less in the case of the Orchard Grass than in that of the wheat. The estimate is given with a design to show that the raising of this grass may be a useful appendage to the usual system of farming. The experiment is perfectly safe—for if the object should not be to raise seed for sale, the advantage of the grass for hay or pasture, will amply compensate the expenditure for seed. But the raising of this may be pursued without deviating materially from the general routine of cropping, as it may frequently happen that, when a field becomes well set with this kind of grass, it will suit very well to retain it for a mowing field, as well as with a view of saving the seed. The writer of these remarks has pursued this course for a number of years, and has found it to answer a good purpose, though he believes if this grass were cultivated for the exclusive profit of the seed, that no agricultural production at present promises a richer return to the farmer; and he has no doubt that from 15 to 20 bushels per acre might be easily raised. It will, however, be seen, that for the course pursued, no extra expense is required; and hence it may be recommended from motives of economy.

Obituary.—Died, in June, Mr. *William Wilson*, nurseryman and seedsman, of this city. By all those who knew Mr. W. he was greatly respected and esteemed. His loss is deeply felt by his acquaintances, and particularly by his large family. It is our intention, on a future occasion, to extend our notice of the departed.—*N. Y. Farmer for Aug.*

Peach Stones.—This is the season for preserving peach pits. They may be sown broadcast, or planted in drills, in autumn, and harrowed in, or covered to a very moderate depth.

FENCES.

No man possessing a particle of the pride which should be felt by every farmer in the excellence and utility of his profession, can travel through any section of our country without feeling that pride deeply mortified at the miserable manner in which too many of our farms are fenced, and the total neglect of providing means to repair those so rapidly rotting away. It is a fact, and one which should be known and felt, that scarcely any part of the United States is more deficient in good fencing stuffs after the land has once been cleared than west New-York. We have few of those inexhaustible quarries of stone found in the eastern mountains—our fields furnish after repeated ploughings but very inadequate quantities of loose stones for fencing—and the axe is used almost as unsparingly in our few remaining forests, as it was when thirty years ago they overshadowed the whole land. The consequence of this state of things is easily foretold—in fact, it is already seen and felt. The worn fences of the first settlers have moldered away, and the fields at first small have gradually enlarged their bounds, until on many farms the outside fence is all that deserves the name. Boys and girls that ought to be at school, pokes and clogs, and fetters of all varieties, are employed as substitutes for fences; and dogs are multiplied to prey on the flocks of the thrifty and provident farmer. This state of things ought not to exist—there is no necessity for it—plant nurseries of trees suitable for fencing stuffs and in a few years your farms will advance in price fifty per cent. The chestnut, the locust, &c. are easily raised and are of rapid growth—impervious hedges are readily formed, and no man should allow a stone as large as a four pound shot to lie on a field devoted to mowing or tillage; all should be worked up into fences. The man whose farm is divided into fields larger than ten acres, may depend that he does not understand his true interest.—*Auburn Journal.*

SMUT IN WHEAT.

A writer in the Maine Farmer entertains the idea that wheat may become smutty through barn-yard manure, into which smut has been cast. His method of preventing smut is very thorough washing of the wheat in water. From very smutty seed wheat he has thus raised crops perfectly free from it. He says, "Take your smutty wheat, and a couple of tubs, a bucket, a sieve, and a quantity of slacked lime, or unleached ashes, to a brook or pool of water; then take off your coat, and roll up your sleeves, farmer-like; put about half a bushel into one tub, fill it with water, stir the wheat so that the smut may rise, and skim off the smut from the water. Repeat this operation of stirring and skimming until all the kernels of smut have risen and been skimmed off and then pour off the water. Wash the wheat in a second and third water; rub it *hard* in your hands, so as to detach the particles of smut from the kernel, not doing at the halves by stirring it with a stick, as I have seen some do; pour off the water, drain the wheat over the sieve, empty the wheat into a spare tub, add at the rate of four quarts of slacked lime, or a peck of unleached ashes, to the bushel, and your wheat will be ready, and fit to be sown. The wheat should not remain a long time in the ashes."

IMPORTED STOCK.

In the New-York Farmer for August, we find the following note appended to the notice of S. Hawes' imported Sheep, copied from this paper of July 13:

It should be addded, that the Southdown wool is finer than that of the kindred variety, and that the fleece is somewhat lighter. For many years these sheep have been favorites in England. Gentlemen buy them for their parks, and farmers for their turnep fields and grass lands; very high prices are given for superior tups, at annual sales held for that purpose only. In the beginning of this month some superior Hampshire down sheep were in Albany, on their way west, the property of Mr. J. Parsons, an English farmer, going to live near Rochester. He had lost at sea one tup, but had two capital ones left.

N. Y. State Agricultural Society.

COMMUNICATION FROM JESSE BUEL, ESQ.

ON MANURES.

The provident farmer, who knows the value of food to his stock, should equally appreciate the importance of food to his crops: for manure, that is, animal and vegetable matter, is as essential to the growth and perfection of the vegetable, as forage is to the growth and development of the animal. Mere earths, as clay, sand and lime, in whatever proportions they be blended, constitute no part of the true food of plants, although they may be incidentally found in them, and be essential to their structure, as lime is in the bones of animals. It is the mixture of vegetable and animal matters with earths that constitute what we denominate soils; and the quality of soils, in reference to fertility, is in a great measure determined by the quantity of vegetable soluble matter which they contain. Hence fields, long subjected to tillage, without occasional supplies of manure, become exhausted of vegetable food, and refuse a return to the labors of the husbandman. In some districts of our country, particularly in Maryland and Virginia, vast bodies of land, once fertile, have been thus injudiciously worn out, and thrown into commons as useless. Had the owners of such lands obeyed the golden rule, to till no more than they could manure well, their husbandry would have been more profitable, and their fields now fertile and enclosed. In truth, most of us act unwisely in these matters. We cultivate more land than we cultivate well. We are careless in saving manures, and wasteful in applying them. We should readily condemn the husbandman, as a bad manager, who should attempt to *fatten* upon his farm, twice the number of cattle which it could *feed*. And yet this is precisely the policy which many pursue in regard to their crops. A starved crop is as discreditable to the owner as a starved animal.

In some of the Asiatic countries, where the population is dense, the preservation from starvation of even human beings, sometimes depends upon the fidelity with which every refuse vegetable and animal substance is applied to the soil, as food for plants, destined to subsist the human species.

In Europe, wherever agriculture is prosperous, we see the most scrupulous care used in husbanding and applying this pabulum of vegetation.

Flanders, which has been denominated the garden of Europe, owes much of her prosperity and wealth to her superior management of this source of fertility. Not a particle of fertilising matter is wasted. The farm stock is fed, summer and winter, in paved stables or sheds, and the urine collected in tanks, and from thence distributed upon the crops. This, with the rape cake which is dissolved in it, constitutes the better half of a Fleming's manure. If applied fresh, it is diluted. It is carried to the fields, and distributed with facility, and forms the best application for clovers and other growing crops, and particularly for flax.

In America, we have been drawing, with reckless waste, upon the supplies of vegetable food which nature has been accumulating for centuries, without husbanding the resources which lie within our reach, and without reflecting on the sterility which we are likely to bequeath to posterity. The old settled districts of our country have already experienced the loss of natural fertility in the soil, and are endeavoring to restore it by a better system of husbandry. The new counties are destined to deteriorate, like the old ones, unless the evil is averted by a timely prudence in economizing manures, and in alternating with grain, more frequently, ameliorating and fertilising crops, as roots, grasses, &c. Constant dropping will wear upon the hardest rock; and even the ocean would in time become dry, if the fountains which supply it were dried up. Providence endued the earth with fertility, and it is the indiscretion and violence of man which have rendered portions of it sterile and unproductive.

In the few remarks which I have to offer, I propose to consider:—

1. The means of increasing, and preserving from waste, those manures which fall within the reach of farmers generally.

2. The methods of applying them with economy. And,

3. To make some suggestions upon what I term specific manures.

First. Whatever has belonged to a vegetable or an animal, is susceptible of becoming food for plants, and should be converted to this use. And the quantity of such, which is wasted upon a farm is very great. But the dead matter, in the course of its transmutation into the living plant, undergoes a decomposition, or separation of its parts, the volatile properties are disengaged in the form of gas, those less volatile commingle with the liquids which come in contact with the mass, while the portion that remains, after the fermentation which causes the decomposition of a dung-heap has subsided, constitutes but about one half of the original fertilising matter; and even this must undergo a further and complete decomposition, in the soil, before it can be taken up by plants, and assimilated with their substance. To save the volatile and liquid portions, for the benefit of his crops, must therefore be an object of great interest to the farmer. If his manure ferments in his yards, and is leached by the rains which fall, the best half of it is irrecoverably lost. And if the fermenting process is carried on upon the surface of his fields, the loss is nearly the same—the gases escape, and the liquids benefit but a comparatively small portion of the grounds. To prevent this great loss, till the manure can be properly applied to the soil, two courses may be adopted, one by retarding fermentation, the other by mixing with the manure earthy matters sufficient to absorb and retain the gases and liquids.

To effect the first object, the barnyard, the site of which should be upon a level surface, may be hollowed in the center, so as to prevent the escape of the liquids, and to concentrate them from the borders, which may be left broad enough to feed the stock upon, and to afford a dry passage to and from the barn. To prevent the evaporation of these liquids, every species of vegetable litter from the farm and buildings, and the earth from the ditches, swamps and head lands, should be thrown into to absorb them; and as during winter the mass will be frozen, the stalks, straw, &c. may be fed upon this part of the yard. I am satisfied from personal experience, that no artificial puddling is necessary, even upon porous soils, to render such yards capable of retaining water. If greater perfection is desirable, the urine from the stables may be conducted in paved gutters to this reservoir, and a drain may be made to conduct any excess of liquids from it to a tank, from which they may be raised with a pump, and conveyed to the fields when wanted. The liquid manure may be transported in casks, placed upon tumbrils or carts, or conveyed by men, as in Flanders, two parallel poles being fastened to a barrel, below the pilge, and carried by two men. The manure from the horse stables may be spread over the yard, and thus kept from fermenting. Let it be borne in mind, that the best means of retarding fermentation in dung, is to have it constantly trod, in the yard, by the cattle, sheep and hogs; and, in the field, to have it compressed by the teams, which take it from the yard, driving over the pile, and by affording it an abundance of moisture. A loose mass is pervious to heat and air, which soon cause fermentation; but a compact mass, spread over the yard, rendered hard by the hoofs of animals, and thoroughly saturated with moisture, will not ferment before the ordinary season of removal; and it often becomes necessary, and is in fact an excellent practice, to cut it with a broad axe or hay knife, to facilitate its removal. If the contents of the yard are applied, as they ought to be, to the spring crops, but an incipient fermentation, at most, will take place before they are removed to the field. To preserve dung in the fields from waste, it may be alternated, in piles, and covered with earth, particularly with peat earth, or muck, from the swamps, which may be found on most farms. This swamp earth is principally, in its place, inert vegetable matter, a good material for feeding plants when rendered soluble. But to render it so, it is necessary to combine it with earths, quick lime or barn-yard manure, which, by generating heat, and probably inducing new chimical combinations, brings on a fermentaion. If mixed with hot stable dung, in the proportion of three of earth to one of dung, in alternate layers, and in a pile four to six feet high, the mass will in a short time begin to ferment, when the whole will be found nearly as serviceable as yard dung. The mixture of earth with manure retards the fermentation of the latter, while the earths receive and retain the fertilizing matters which the manure parts with.

Second. It will be seen from what has already been said, that dung loses one half of its value by being permitted to exhaust the powers of fermentation in the yard, and very nearly that portion when sufferd to rot in piles upon the field, without covering or admixture. The deduction from these premises is, that as far as practicable the fermentation and decomposition should take place in the soil, or in other words, that dung should be ploughed in before the volatile parts have escaped. And the view I have taken of the matter would seem further to imply, what most farmers already know, that the more simultaneous the operations of hawling, spreading and ploughing in, are performed, the more are the fertilizing properties of manure preserved. Dung loses much by drying, after it is carried into the field, or spread upon the ground. The heat of our summers, and the rains which fall, (and heat and moisture are the essential agents of putrefaction,) will ordinarily bring on a decomposition in the soil, to meet the wants of the growing crop. Nor are the mechanical effects of long manure upon the soil unworthy of consideration. The heat generated, and the gases evolved, by the fermentation of dung thus buried, render the soil light and porous, more permeable to the young roots, and more pervious to air, heat and moisture, the prime agents of vegetable nutrition. When dung ferments in large masses, the violence of the fermentation is great, and the loss of volatile matter in proportion to this violence. But when the process goes on in the soil, it is comparatively moderate, and the earth and growing plants absorb the volatile and liquid portions which it parts with.

Unfermented yard manures should be applied exclusively to hoed crops, as corn, potatoes, turneps, beans, &c. for two substantial reasons; first, because the culture of these crops tends to destroy weeds, &c. the seeds of which may be brought in with the dung; and secondly, because those portions of the manure which are first separated in the process of fermentation, are better suited to these than to crops which do not require after culture. Unfermented dung, applied in any considerable quantity to wheat or barley, for instance, is apt to cause too rank a growth of straw, which is liable to become rusty and to lodge, and to produce light and imperfect grain. Manures, on the contrary, on which fermentation has exhausted its powers, and such there always will be upon a farm, may be applied to these latter crops, in moderate quantities, with manifest advantage. My practice induces me to believe, however, that the entire benefit of the manure to the hoed crops is saved by applying it to them in its unfermented state; and that it is as beneficial to the wheat when thus rotted in the soil, as it would be if rotted in the ordinary way, in the cattle yard, with the advantage, in the former mode, of the dung being far better incorporated with the soil.

There are three methods in ordinary use, of applying manure. 1. To bury it in hills or ridges; 2: to spread and leave it on the surface, particularly of meadows; and 3: to spread it broadcast and plough it in. The last, I think, is the best mode, not only in reference to the permanent improvement of the soil, but for the advantage of the coming crop. It will be generally found, at least in loose and permeable soils, that the roots of plants equal in length their culm or stalk, and sometimes exceed it. At an agricultural exhibition in the capitol, a few years since, spears of corn were taken from a box in which they had been grown in a loose soil, the stocks and leaves

of which measured but twelve, while the roots measured seventeen inches. The food of plants is taken up by the spongeoles, on the fibres, communicating with the larger roots; and the conclusion seems to be a fair one, that roots, in a common field crop, penetrate every part of the soil, in pursuit of food, ere the crop attains maturity. Hence, if the manure is deposited in hills or ridges, the mouths of the plants are soon found to extend beyond the sphere of its influence, and are at least partially deprived of its benefit; whereas, if it is spread upon the whole surface, these roots are constantly reaching, as they elongate, fresh supplies of food. And I think I may add, as a third reason, that long manure is intrinsically better for these crops, than that which has undergone fermentation. Besides, where long dung is applied in hills and ridges, and a dry season ensues, there is not moisture enough to induce fermentation, and the manure proves injurious, rather than beneficial to the crop. This will not happen where the manure is applied broadcast.

There is another species of manure available by every farmer, and of no trifling value, and which I am afraid does not receive the consideration it merits; I mean greensward. It has been ascertained that the vegetable matter contained in an ordinary grass lay, exceeds twelve tons on an acre. This is all convertible into food for vegetables, and is, of itself, if not wasted by bad management, a good dressing for a crop. The same rules apply to this as to other vegetable manures: they are wasted by exposure upon the surface, after having been ploughed under. It is this consideration that has led to the substitution, by many of our best farmers, of fallow crops for summer fallows,—by which, they contend, they not only save the fertilising properties of the sod, but actually gain a crop from the soil. The ploughing for a fallow crop may be performed, upon stiff soils, in the autumn, and upon those that are light in the spring, and the ground may be rolled and harrowed, previous to receiving the crop, which may consist of corn, potatoes, peas, beans or oats. Upon light clover lays, wheat may be sown upon the first furrow, immediately after ploughing, and harrowed in. In this way the food for the crop is placed where the roots naturally search for it, secure from the wasting influence of the sun and winds. Lorrain, who I consider the best American writer upon husbandry, advises, and I am satisfied he does it upon sound principles, that the ploughing which is to follow the fallow crop be superficial, or shallow, so as to leave the unexhausted store of vegetable food below, where it will best subserve the wants of the second crop. Where repeated ploughings and harrowings are given, as is ordinarily the case in summer fallows, the vegetable matter is necessarily thrown to the surface, and much of its fertilising properties borne off by the winds.

The principal arguments which are urged in favor of summer fallows, are, 1. That they are necessary to clear foul lands of grass and weeds; and, 2. That upon stiff grounds, in particular, they ameliorate, by pulverising the soil, and rendering it more light and porous. In Great Britain the first consideration may have weight; but with us Indian corn, which is a cleansing crop, and which is planted upon almost every farm, renders a resort to naked fallows unnecessary upon light soils; and upon stiff lays, the cultivated crop gets so much the start, as to be very little effected by the weeds which subsequently spring up. In reply to the second argument, it may be remarked, that stiff grounds are generally retentive of moisture, and that after repeated ploughings and harrowings they are liable to be again rendered compact and hard by heavy rains. Whereas, when the furrow slices are lapped, every furrow becomes a sort of under drain, to receive and pass off the surface water, while the decay of the roots of the grasses renders the soil porous and permeable.

Thirdly. In speaking of specific manures, I am sensible I may be charged with venturing beyond the bounds of prudence. Yet the subject is so interwoven with my views of good husbandry, that I will run the hazard, relying upon the indulgence of my hearers, for the errors I may betray. I assume as the basis of my remarks, that all plants take something in common from the soil, in the nature of food; and that in addition, different species, and perhaps all species, take something specific, necessary to their development and perfection, which other species do not require and do not take. It is upon this assumption alone, that we can explain the natural alternation of forest trees and grasses, or account for a manifest advantages derived from a rotation of crops in husbandry. The old variety has exhausted its specific food, and hence fails, and a new variety, requiring a different specific food, comes in. The soil, or the atmosphere, must contain the elements of the new plant; and as vegetation is said to be incapable of decomposing common atmospheric air, the soil must be mainly relied on for the specific food of the crop. To illustrate my views, we will say that the elements of plants, generally, and of their products, are carbon, oxygen and hydrogen, all of which abound in common dung; but that wheat, besides these, contains nitrogen. Primitive formations contain nothing that gives nitrogen; and it would consequently follow, that primitive formations are not adapted to the growth of wheat, unless artificial applications that afford nitrogen, are first made to the soil. New-England, with partial exceptions, is a primitive formation, and we very well know it is not congenial to the growth of this grain. The new lands, it is true, will often produce a crop or two, while the animal matter, which centuries have accumulated upon their surface, and which abound in nitrogen, remain unexhausted. And this may likewise happen where the manures applied are such as afford the specific food, as animal matters generally, urine, lime, &c. The failure does not arise from sterility. The straw of wheat may be made to grow as large in New-England as in New-York; yet the kernel will be small and comparatively shriveled, for want of the nitrogen essential to perfect the gluten,—the substance which gives peculiar value, and which distinguishes this above all other grain. An extensive primitive region stretches through Pennsylvania and Maryland, contiguous to the great lime stone valley. In this lime is generally and extensively applied, and its efficacy to the wheat crop fully conceded. Clovers, and some of the other broad leaved plants, seem to find a specific food in gypsum, (sulphate of lime,) which, however, so far as my observation goes, is wholly inoperative upon wheat, rye, timothy, and some other farm crops.

The soil is the labratory for preparing the food of vegetables, and fitting it for the delicate organs which are to absorb and transmit to the roots. Heat, air and moisture, are the agents by which the process is carried on, and water the medium of conveyance. It has been demonstrated by vegetable physiologists, that the fluid matters which present themselves to the mouths of plants, are taken up without discrimination, carried through the alburnum or sap wood, to the leaves, the organs of respiration, where the process of elaboration is perfected; that the elaborated or proper sap, then descends through another set of vessels, in the inner bark, depositing in its way the materials for a new circle of wood and a new circle of bark, which in the course of the season become indurated; and that the plant having retained all that is adapted to its wants, the residue is thrown off at the roots, like the excrementitious matter of animals. I shall mention one of the experiments of Proff. Lindley, in corroboration of the latter fact. He took a fresh plant with two prominent roots, one of which he plunged into a vessel of pure water, the other into water containing poison. In a short time the pure water became sensibly charged with the poison, which had been taken up by the root in the poisonous liquid, passed through the circulation of the plant, and voided by the other root in the pure water.

Dialects.—There are 937 in Asia, 587 in Europe, 226 in Africa, 1264 in America.

Education in France.—In the Royal Colleges of Paris there are 5235 pupils.

ON RAISING APPLE TREES FROM SEEDS, CROSS-FERTILIZATION, &c.

The following is the substance of an article which was published in the *Horticultural Register* for May last, with the signature J. C. K.

The best time to sow apple seeds is in autumn, immediately after they have been taken from the fruit; for if delayed till spring, the greater part will be found to have lost their germinating power. But if it is determined to keep them, they must be mixed with sand and closed from the air; this occasions considerable trouble, if the pippins of different varieties, as they always should be, are preserved distinct.

"In practicing cross fertilization the writer adopts the following mode:

"After selecting a few conveniently situated branchlets, in different parts of a tree, I remove all the blossoms, with the exception of three or four of the most promising, from which, a day or two before their expansion, I extract the anthers with a small pair of scissors, or tweezers, and cover each branchlet with a piece of thin gauze, taking care that no opening be left by which bees, flies, or other insects, might gain admission, and thereby mar the experiment by bearing to the stigma the pollen of some variety other than the one I may desire to employ. The gauze should also be rendered secure, so that the wind may not partially open it, nor entirely carry it away. When the blossoms are fully expanded, and the stigma by bursting is ready to receive the influence of the pollen, it must be supplied by the application of a flower of whatever variety has been fixed upon as the male parent, and the gauze replaced till the fruit is set. As the fruit increases in size, if more than one or two remain, judge which gives the best promise of attaining perfection, and the rest remove; it will be advisable to distinguish each branch by a label affixed. The above, or some similar method, alone can determine with any certainty which is the male parent; or indeed there may be many, which accounts for the diversity of the products obtained from seeds of the same individual fruit.

"Last year I gathered the first produce of some seedling strawberries, raised by cross fertilization in a similar manner; and am looking forward to the result of subsequent experiments, which from the success I have already attained leads me to believe will prove highly satisfactory. Two or three of the varieties obtained, (but one more especially,) possess excellent properties of growth, fecundity and flavor, and differ remarkably from any previous one which has come under my observation.. * * * * *

"Throughout the vegetable kingdom, it is found that there is a certain point or degree of ramification more or less in different individual members, removed from the parent stem, previous to the attainment of which, a plant is incapable of putting forth fruit blossoms; the cause of this it were difficult to explain satisfactorily. Having ascertained the numerical amount of this requisite degree of ramification in conjunction with a knowledge of the habits of the plants, as to the number of successive shoots it protrudes in the course of the year, we may form a pretty accurate estimate of the length of time required before it shall attain to a fruit bearing state.

"Thus, other circumstances remaining the same, the oak, did it not send forth two shoots, the one in spring, the other in autumn, would be double the long period it now is, ere it began to produce acorns. The exact number, however, cannot be ascertained, since all traces by which they might be computed are, in the older portions of the wood, entirely lost. It is by earlier inducing *this* degree in the melon, which is generally the second from the main stem, that the pruning or stopping is effective towards the accelerating of the emission of fruit blossoms.

"In the apple the twelfth, and the pear the eighteenth, are about the minimum number of degrees of ramification distant from the parent stem that are required ere flowers are put forth; that period, however, is often protracted. In computing these numbers, a shoot succeeding after a quiescent period, whether still projected in

a line with the older wood, or at an angle from it, it is equally considered as a distinct branch; there is indeed a knot at the junction, as much of the one as the other; and it is the number of these knots, by retarding the flow, or causing the accumulation of the sap, which would appear to bear some part in effecting a fruitful state. From these circumstances the inference to be drawn is, that if we can cause the formation of three or four successive shoots in the course of the year instead of one, or at the most two, (as would be the case were the tree left to its natural growth,) that we shall thereby anticipate by a half or two thirds, the usual period of fructification.

"With this aim then, it will be necessary to maintain the young seedlings by due care and judicious culture in a vigorons growing state, and two or three times, or even oftener, as the circumstances may warrant, nip off or prune back the leading shoot, whereby at each operation a new branch will be protruded, which otherwise would not have been the case, until the succeeding spring. By a continued repetition, however, of these operations, an inconvenient number of diverging shoots will also be excited; consequently attention must be paid to regulating their number, by disbudding the branches accordingly, which will also infuse more vigor into those remaining. It will not be advisable to continue the stopping far into the season, otherwise the young wood will not have time to ripen; and the frosts of winter, by killing the new formed portions, will counteract the advantage obtained. By duly following this method, the usual period of fructification will be shortened with the apple, to and from the fifth to the seventh year, instead of the twelfth to the twentieth, and the pear in like proportion."—*N. E. Farmer.*

SHEEP HUSBANDRY.

Sheep husbandry is that sort of farm management which relates to or has sheep for a principal object. There are various modifications of this kind of farming, depending upon the difference in the circumstances of the lands, their nature and situation, as well as other local causes. In Europe, this business has been entered into with all the modifications of which it is susceptible. All the varieties of sheep, of which there are many, have been carefully and distinctly cultivated; the profits of each kind as nearly as possible ascertained; the improvements from crossing the different varieties carefully noted, and the number that each farm which is in a course of arable or other tillage, according to its size, can profitably maintain. They have a system about the whole management which results in certain profits to the owner of the farm, while the farm itself is annually improving. Sheep are animals of the utmost importance to mankind, whether considered in the light of food or clothing, or in that of the vast improvement and profit which they produce in the various systems of management to which they are subjected by the ingenuity of man. In some instances they constitute a very large proportion; in others nearly the whole of his dependence and support. There is another point of view in which they appear equally advantageous; and that is upon lands that must otherwise be nearly if not wholly useless. True, cattle will do tolerably well on lands of this description, but not as well as sheep; and if the first afford us food, the latter give us both food and clothing.

I do not intend at this time, however, to take a detailed view of the manifold advantages of sheep husbandry, or the profits that arise in stocking an entire farm with them, to the exclusion of other kinds of tillage. It is my purpose to take only a glance at the present method adopted by our farmers, who all keep a number proportionate to the size and the capacity of their farms, while they are under a course of arable tillage. Upon this point, I am happy to say that I think we are manifestly improving, not only in the qualities and general appearance of our flocks, but in their increased number. Sheep husbandry to an extent to which a farm is susceptible, while a large portion of it is likewise ploughed and sowed, is one of the greatest of modern improvements. We have already seen how, and profitably too, this is managed in Europe. We have only successfully to carry out the plan here, and we are yet little aware of what will be the extent of the benefits of the practice. Sheep not only enrich a farm, but they prepare it for our best crops of grain. They seem to cleanse and purify a soil better than other animals, and a fallow cannot be rendered more suitable for wheat, than by giving them the range of it; for they destroy almost all weeds, and the quack or couch grass, so injurious to our wheat crop, is more certainly obliterated by them than by any other animal whatever. Besides, they are a sure return to the farmer; and if his crops of grain by drouth or severe winters are cut off, it is not so with his mutton and wool, as his sheep never fail to produce these, and what is more, while man must have food and clothing, the farmer's mutton and wool will command a price, as they are articles that can always be sold, and a cash return made sure. Ought not a farmer, then, carefully to cultivate this species of stock, and to ascertain almost to a certainty how many sheep his farm can keep, and keep well. Upon this he may likewise depend; the better his farm is cultivated, the larger number he can supply with good wholesome food; and vice versa, a poorly cultivated farm is soon overstocked. I say therefore to the farmer, manage your farm well, and keep as large a stock of sheep as it can well support; you will receive a much larger profit than from the old method of having a few miserably starved sheep, raising a large number of cattle, with a barn filled in winter with mares, young horses and colts. Of all the methods of farming, the last, of which we have had an ample experience, is the most unprofitable. According to the old plan, the hogs ate up the corn, the negroes the hogs, and the mares and colts the hay, so that the farmer had nothing but the negroes and horses left, for whose support it was his constant business to labor. The negroes, thank God, have all been liberated; the horses are now limited in number and put to profitable uses, and the former starveling sheep are now carefully nursed—their number increased—their qualities improved; and what is the effect of the change? Our land is worth twice as much per acre as before; simply because it produces three times as much grain. We have better fences, houses and barns—better horses and cattle—the comforts of life vastly increased—intelligence more general—education more common and more thorough; in fine, we are physically and mentally improved—every thing around is improved, and the prospect continually brightening. If we have now commenced the correct system of farming, let us carry it out to its full extent, and by perseverance we must make our farms generally worth $100 per acre, and they will be so when we can make them bring in that interest free of expense. Whether the *kind of sheep* usually grown here is most profitable, must be the next subject of inquiry; but I must leave that for a succeeding number.—*Columbia Sentinel.* A.

MOW YOUR CANADA THISTLES.

Now is the time to cut down this troublesome enemy and prevent its going to seed. Every part of the farm and every highway and byeway should be visited with the scythe, and every thistle cut and raked up and put into the *Hog-Pen*; or if there should chance to be any that have been out of blossom a little while, they should be burnt, for the seed will draw nourishment enough from the stalk to ripen it, and multiply itself on the wings of the slightest breeze, ten thousand fold. Hundreds of loads of manure might be made from it in some places, and this manure converted into something valuable. Now is the time, UP, UP, AND BE DOING.—*Maine Farmer.*

A STEEL TRAP.—A gentleman who had long been subject to the nocturnal visitation of thieves in his orchards, wishing to preserve his property without endangering any one's life, procured from a hospital the leg of a subject, which he placed one evening in a steel trap in his garden, and next morning sent the crier round the town to announce, that "the owner of the leg left in Mr. ———'s grounds last night, might receive it upon application." He was never robbed again.

A GROOM INFECTED BY THE GLANDERS.

There are many diseases incident to other animals from which man is exempt. But there are many of them contagious to him. An instance of this kind lately occurred in London.

A groom had been attending a horse diseased with the glanders, and had carelessly permitted the discharge from its nose to fall on his hands—and witlessly to remain. A fortnight sent him to an hospital, complaining of an unaccountable debility, which changed to diarrhœa, and to delirium. Soft tumors and globular postules afterwards appeared on different parts of his body; and an occasional discharge issued from his nostrils. So singular a case warranted scrutiny; and begat suspicion of glanders, which was confirmed by the patient's answer how he had been employed. An eminent veterinary surgeon was sent for; and the case was rendered too plain to admit of doubt. Death was inevitable. The cry for 'water! water!!" became incessant, and all that the medical attendants could do was to mitigate pain; and the patient soon ended his life, exclaiming, 'I know I am dying. I shall die soon, but I shall die happy. I know now I am glandered; I shall die as my horses do—I shall die happy.'

It is indeed one of the most unaccountable follies or frailties of compassion, to exhibit sympathy where its efforts are known to prove fruitless. It is known to every veterinary surgeon that not one in fifty of those horses which become diseased with the glanders have ever recovered, however they may have been attended. Is it not then an extraordinary symptom of the want of prudence or pity wantonly to permit the slow and secure ravages of the disease on the poor distressed brute, rather than rid it of pain in ransoming it from existence? A horse so diseased cannot live long. At least no cure has yet been devised or discovered for the disease, and till some remedy is discovered—not partially to prolong existence in a soulless brute, but to restore it to health and utility—the best part of pity and prudence is promptly ridding the animal of a useless tortured life.—*American Sentinel.*

☞ The communication of "*Berberis,*" will appear in our next. We shall be gratified to hear frequently from the writer.

Frost in August.—We learn from the Newport, N. H. Spectator, that there was quite a heavy frost in that town on the night of the 2d inst., and some fields of corn were considerably injured.

Rochester Prices Current.

Wheat, per bu.	94	Apples,	25a37
Flour, per brl.	5 00	Lard, cwt.	8 00
Pork, mess, brl.	16 00	Cheese do	6a9 00
do prime do	11 00	Butter	12½ 00
Beef per cwt.	3a4 00	Hams do	7a8 50
Oats	34	Pot Ash, cwt.	3 50
Corn	63	Pearls,	3 75a4 00
Rye	75	Hides, cwt.	5 00
Barley	50a56	Sole Leather,	19a22 00

THE NATURE OF CONSUMPTION

AND OTHER DISEASES OF THE CHEST.

[Though we by no means intend to devote our paper to medical subjects, the following article is so replete with facts important to the health of every family, and so well adapted to prevent the imposition of quacks, and the often deleterious effects of quack medicines, that we copy it in the belief that we are thereby doing an acceptable service to our patrons.]

In the preceding number of the Magazine we gave a short description of the structure and use of the human lungs; and we shall now make a few observations on the principal diseases to which they are liable,—namely, catarrh, pleurisy inflammation of the lungs, and consumption.

The first three are all of the nature of ordinary inflammation, but as they have their seats in different parts of the lungs or their immediate connections, medical men have assigned to them different names. That the reader may have an idea of the source of these distinctions, he must be informed that the pulmonary organs have been divided by anatomists into three distinct textures, which may individually or collectively be the seat of disease. In the first place, branches of the windpipe perforate the lungs in every direction, and these as well as the windpipe are lined throughout by a delicate membrane similar to the lining of the mouth and nostrils; inflammation of this membrane constitutes *catarrh* or *common cold.* Secondly, the outside of each lung is covered by a still more delicate membrane, thin and transparent like "silver" paper, called the pleura; inflammation of this membrane constitutes the *pleurisy.* Thirdly, there is a texture contained between the internal and external membranes just described, which consists of the vessels and other proper substance of the lungs; inflammation of this intervening texture is what is known in technical language by the name of *inflammation of the lungs. Consumption,* is a disease of a nature quite apart from that of ordinary inflammation.

No class of diseases have afforded, under certain circumstances, more difficulty in their discrimination than those of the chest. The various inflammatory attacks when they existed in a severe degree, have been at times confounded with each other; and the protracted effects of inflammation in the living body are still frequently mistaken by the public for the presence of consumption. A patient may have violent cough, frequent expectoration of purulent matter, shortness of breath, sense of pain or oppression in the chest, wasting of the flesh, hectic fever, and yet all these symptoms may be the consequence of an extensive and long continued attack of catarrh; or this (as it less rarely occurs) with the effects of a dangerous pleurisy, or of inflammation of the proper substance of the lungs. The difficulty experienced in attempting to discriminate these diseases is explained in the fact that they have many symptoms in common. Every severe derangement of the lungs and their connections is sure to be accompanied with cough, shortness of breath, and one or more of the other symptoms enumerated above. The difficulty of discrimination is further accounted for in the peculiar *position* of the lungs. As the lungs are contained within a bony case formed by the ribs, we are unable, when any portion of their structure is changed by disease, to ascertain either by our sight or our touch the exact character and seat of the morbid change, and, if we have no other means of forming an opinion, we are obliged to depend on the external symptoms, which may, as has been previously observed, occasionally deceive us.

Until the year 1816, indeed, no better way had been discovered of discriminating pulmonary diseases; but at this period, Dr. Lœnnec, an eminent physician of Paris, hit upon a new method. It consisted of applying *the ear* to the purposes of discrimination, and the originality and strangeness of the discovery excited great surprise and no little incredulity among the profession of the day. Dr. Lœnnec was led to enter on this new path by a very simple circumstance. By bringing his ear near to the chest of a patient, he observed that certain sounds were emitted from the chest during the act of breathing. Following up the hint, he constructed an instrument on the principle of an ear trumpet, that the sounds might be heard the more distinctly, and with this instrument, called a stethoscope, he commenced a series of observations. These observations, after having been prosecuted with astonishing assiduity, for several years, ended in Lœnnec's giving publicity to the fruit of his labors. This general result showed that the lungs when in a healthy state always emit during respiration sounds of a peculiar character; and in progress of their diseases emit sounds of a different description, each disease, singular to say, having its own variety of sounds. This, the acoustic mode of discrimination, has since had an extended trial, and its claims to utility are now recognised by professional men in various parts of the world.

The inflammatory diseases of the chest are as curable as inflammation in the other parts of the body; but the consumptive disease is one of the most intractable with which we are acquainted. Conscientious medical men at once admit that patients in whom consumption has been established very rarely recover; yet there are quacks who pretend to be able to cure every instance, and, what is still more to be regretted, such persons have often succeeded in bringing over a portion of the public to believe in their pretensions. It is not difficult, however, to account for this apparent success. An affectionate mother, for instance, who has delicate female children, is exceedingly apt, should any of them become subject to cough, to take alarm, and to immediately conclude that the cough is a sign of the commencement of the consumption. If, while under this impression, the mother obtains the opinion of a quack, she is certain to have her suspicions corroborated. The child is then submitted to his treatment, and though the complaint be a common cold, or any other complaint equally curable, he will publish the case, as soon as recovery comes about, as a cure of consumption, and the mother who was at first deceived by her own affectionate solicitude, and afterwards deepened by the cunning of the impostor, will voluntarily attest his certificate of skill. This is a fair sample of the manner in which quackery secures its advocates and its victims. On the list of the honorable practitioner we never find these "surprising cures." No, when he is consulted in such cases, he assures the mother that her suspicions are groundless, prescribes for the patient, and, when the affection is removed, the only credit *he* claims or receives is the credit of having subdued a catarrh, or other result of inflammatory action.

Although the wisest judgment of the scientific physician be occasionally required to discriminate consumption in the living body, from the chronic effects of pectoral inflammation, there is no difficulty in their discrimination when we come to examine the contents of the chest after death. In an examination of a consumptive patient after death, the lungs are found in a state which cannot be produced by any other known disease. Were the public in possession of any rational conception of this state, it would effectually shield them from the designs of those unprincipled persons who pretend to have a specific for its removal. In the language of medicine the lungs of consumptive patients are said to contain *tubercles or small tumors,* and we shall presently lay before the reader a sketch of the progress of these extraordinary and destructive bodies.

The seeds of the disease, which will eventually establish consumption, may be deposited in his lungs a considerable time before the patient is aware of any alteration in his general health. He may be engaged for weeks in the routine of business or of pleasure, previous to his receiving any warning of the pulmonary danger, unless, perhaps, in a trifling irritation about the top of the windpipe, accompanied by a dry tickling cough. A sight of the lungs, during this early stage, can be obtained only in case the patient be destroyed by the inroad of some other disease, or by an accident. Then, on opening the chest, the following appearances present themselves.

In the upper half of both lungs, great numbers of roundish bodies, somewhat resembling small pearls, are seen scattered. They are of a pale grey color, and vary in size from that of a millet to that of a hempseed. They feel hard, and adhere to the substance of the lungs, in which they are set after the manner of currants in the surface of a pudding. These are the remarkable bodies called tubercles. Their structure is altogether foreign to the healthy structure of the lungs; but the functional or organic change of the latter, which must necessarily precede their formation, is not as yet clearly explained. In the obscurity of their origin, they resemble certain plants that suddenly spring up in places where their species were previously unknown. It is certain, however, that the elements of tubercles are not derived from the atmosphere, for they are often found in parts of the human frame, such as the bones, to which the atmospheric air cannot gain admission.

This early stage we have remarked, may or may not be attended with slight external symptoms. The tubercles are too small and too slow in their growth to disturb as yet, in any marked degree, the vital functions of the surrounding parts. The substance of the lungs quietly yield to their pressure, and the respiration is not sensibly affected by their morbid encroachment. But once created, tubercles will, in a longer or shorter time, proceed through their accustomed course. Their progress may be conveniently divided into three stages, of which two stages remain to be described.

In the first stage, the tubercles had obtained the size of millet and of hempseeds. In the second stage, they continue to increase in size, and, drawing nearer to each other, they appear arranged in regular groups. A yellow speck soon becomes developed in the center of each tubercle, and, extending it slowly, encroaches on the grey structure, of which the tubercle seemed originally composed, until the grey color completely disappears in the yellow. Individually the size of the tumors may now be included between that of a pea and a filbert. Their structure is still firm, and several may be seen either coalescing or united into one mass.

The third stage is at hand. The groups of tubercles are united into homogenous masses, generally equal in size, or rather larger than a walnut. The structure of each mass becomes gradually softer and moister, and if pressed between the fingers at this time, it feels greasy like new cheese. Continuing to soften, it gradually passes from the solid to the fluid state. The fluid first forms in the center of the mass, and its quantity steadily augments until the solid portions of the tubercles are completely broken down. In a short time, these fluid tubercles burst into the air tubes, and are expectorated in a violent fit of coughing, leaving hollow ulcers in the substance of the lungs.

This is the history of genuine consumption, or the tubercular disease of which more than a fourth of the inhabitants of Great Britain are said to perish. Commencing, as we have seen, in small hard grains, the tubercles gradually increase in size, and change their color from grey to yellow. They then unite into irregular masses. The center of these masses become soft, and afterwards fluid. The fluidity eventually involves the whole mass, and this is the final transformation which tubercles undergo before they burst into the air tubes and are expectorated. The constitution of the patient generally begins to suffer in the second stage. In the third stage the symptoms are still more severe. Harrassing cough has then set in, and fever, with copious night sweats, &c. A temporary relief may succeed to the expectoration of the first fluid tubercles; but new crops will continue to form and go through the same process, until the lungs of the patient are no longer capable of sustaining life, and his body is reduced to almost the figure of a skeleton.—*Penny Mag.*

The editor of the Paris, Ky. Citizen, has been *permitted to look at* a beet, which weighed 13 lbs.